## THE

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[B. F. TWEED, Editor for May.]

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#### SEX IN EDUCATION.

It is with an apology that I offer this article to the readers of the "Massachusetts Teacher," who must be weary of the subject; but Mr. Collar's able article in the February number, though aiming to be just, seems to me to endorse the book beyond its merits.

Its physiological truths cannot atone for its partiality and coarseness: in direct confirmation of this latter assertion, let me refer to pages 14, 44, 95, 115, 148, 179; also to the quotations from Virgil and Le Comte A. De Gasparin, obviously given in the original because the English mind is incapable of conceiving and the English language of expressing the phenomenon there described. Mr. Collar, I believe, charitably calls these paragraphs humorous.

The rapid sale of five editions of the book is no proof of its merit: one reason may be the manner in which the subject is treated, and another, perhaps the principal reason, that the opponents of the higher education of women as well as of co education hoped to find in its pages a logical foundation for their opposition.

Dr. Clarke's book seems to contain the following prominent points:—

The health of American women is rapidly declining, consequently the Americans are decreasing in numbers.

The principal cause of this ill health is excessive study.

The inclination of women is to despise their organization, to desire and attempt to assimilate themselves to men.

Identical education is a failure.

Co-education is inexpedient.

The first assertion, or a parallel one, has often been made. Herbert Spencer and other thoughtful men have written on the increasing ill health in highly-educated civilized communities; but Dr. Clarke alone, to my knowledge, eliminates one sex in his consideration of the subject. Even in his quotation from H. H., pages 163–167, though her comparison is between the boys as well as girls of Nova Scotia and New England, by putting girls in italics (which does not occur in the original) he misinterprets the author's meaning.

Dr. Clarke is deserving our gratitude for calling attention to the causes of ill health; but if he assert mental education to be the CHIEF cause, he should prove, which we think he cannot, that the highly-educated American girls are greater invalids than the uneducated. That excessive mental education without proper physical education inflicts its penalties on both sexes, Dr. Clarke must acknowledge, and we believe on both sexes alike; for, although we read on page 54,—

"The duration of the formative period is shorter for a girl than a boy. She ripens quicker than he. In the four years from fourteen to eighteen she accomplishes an amount of physiological cell change and growth which Nature does not require from a boy in less than twice that number of years,"—

We may be sure Nature will provide for its own creation. If twice as much be required from a girl, the corresponding power to fulfil each obligation will be given, and that, too, without a deduction of power in other directions; to deny this is to affirm that, granted equal intellectual power, as Dr. Clarke emphatically has, on page 163, a boy's capacities are in harmony with his organization, and a girl's are not. Surely, we suffer from a lack, not an excess, of education.

Mr. Collar, in partial explanation of the statistics on page 139, cites the fact, "well known to physicians, that the disinclination of American girls to marriage is rapidly increasing." To advance physical weakness in consequence of excessive mental effort as

the cause, seems a very poor argument: if he acknowledge the improved opportunities for education offered to women from 1830 to 1870 to be the principal reason, we cordially agree with him. Probably the Turk of the harem that Dr. Clarke so much admires has little difficulty in adding to his "bouquet" at pleasure, though, by the way, it has been and is a marvel to me how, under existing Eastern laws and customs, Dr. Clarke was admitted into its precincts; but Western men made a great mistake when they decided "Ought women to learn the alphabet?" in the affirmative. That concession they granted her; how she shall learn it with Dr. Clarke's permission, she is perfectly able and willing to decide for herself. She has learned that she is an individual; with mind and will, with faculties capable of rare development, capable, too, of self-support. Marriage is no longer a necessity, and the position must be made more acceptable to induce her to leave the independent one she now occupies.

Of the next point we have inclination and space only to regret that Dr. Clarke has been so unfortunate in his acquaintance with women. We believe she respects her organization from choice as well as necessity, and she envies man only certain privileges from which he unjustly excludes her.

Page 127. "Identical education of the two sexes is a crime that physiology protests against and that experience weeps over."

In support of the above we have a description of some of the doctor's patients,— Miss B., an actress at fifteen, and Miss C., a bookkeeper. It is presumable these young ladies are illustrations of the results of identical education, but we have no evidence on this point; of a third patient details may be pardoned, as they furnish an apt illustration of the injustice of the book.

"Miss D—entered Vassar College at the age of fourteen. She studied, recited, stood at the blackboard, walked, and performed her gymnastic exercises from the beginning to the end of the term just as boys do,—performed all her regular college duties regularly and steadily. She graduated before nineteen, with fair honors."

We have the assurance of the president and resident physician of Vassar College that no such case of precocity ever occurrea there; but even were the evidence of this untruthful or imaginary

individual to be credited, she violated the instructions of her physician and teachers. Dr. Clarke's knowledge of professional courtesy should have prevented him from depreciating the course of instruction pursued at Vassar unless he had verified his statements.

Dr. Clarke, on page 20, says that throughout the book education is not used in a limited sense of intellectual or mental training alone. Can any one believe that identical education in this broad sense has ever been tried in America except in a few exceptional cases? Identical mental education may produce the results he deplores: that we will not discuss; if it has, it is largely owing to a neglect of identical physical training. Mary Somerville, Harriet Hosmer could tell Dr. Clarke what studying, rowing, riding, and swimming,—in short, identical education, as he uses the word,—has done for them.

Of identical co-education we have not sufficient data from which to judge,—it is almost an experiment as yet; but Dr. Clarke tells us, on page 142, that Pres. Magoun, of Iowa College, reports the happy intellectual, moral, and religious results of the experiment, but leaves us ignorant of its physiological results. The presidents and physicians of other colleges have atoned for this deficiency, and we venture to call Dr. Clarke's attention to the valuable evidence he could easily have obtained had he so desired.

Pres. Fairchild, of Oberlin College, says: -

"Nor is there any inability on the part of young women to endure the required labor. A breaking down in health does not appear to be more frequent than with young men."

Pres. White, of Cornell: -

"As a rule, the young women average about ten per cent better on the examination papers than do the young men: they have raised the average of conscience and manliness more than ten per cent. As to health, they are quite as well as the young men."

The old arguments of mental inferiority and moral injury find no supporter in Dr. Clarke; he founds his objection simply on thysical injury. And in concluding, let us see if his objections

cannot fairly be met as regards our oldest and perhaps best college, Harvard, both against identical education and co-education. He states, perhaps, two objections:—

On page 150. "Harvard would require, in addition to its present resources, from one to two millions of dollars."

On page 158. "The organization of studies and instruction must be flexible enough to admit of the periodical and temporary absence of each pupil, without loss of rank or necessity of making up work, from recitation, and exercise of all sorts."

Several times in the book Dr. Clarke suggests the establishment of separate colleges for women; these would necessarily require an immense outlay of money. If it be necessary, why not allow Harvard a portion of this sum, thus rendering it able to receive girls? The amount, though small, it has extorted during the last year from young ladies whom it has examined, and informed that through their own unaided efforts they have really learned something, might also be properly used in this way; but we have the opinion of Mr. T. W. Higginson,— and his authority on Harvard matters none can deny,— that instead of costing one million additional dollars, it need not cost one additional cent.

Of the flexibility of studies at Harvard, we call attention to the following facts: the *elective* instead of the required system of studies has been introduced; in many departments, rank is decided by monthly or quarterly examinations instead of by daily recitations; and also this important resolution adopted January 14, 1874:—

"Resolved, That the Board of Overseers consent that for the academic year 1874-1875 all rules imposing penalties or marks of censure upon Seniors for absence from church and from recitations, lectures, or exercises other than examinations, be suspended."

Surely, these statements answer all Dr. Clarke's objections.

We thank Dr. Clarke for his interest in our sex, and for some valuable suggestions; but there will soon graduate from the Medical School of Boston University, and by and by from those of Harvard and Yale (President Eliot and his friends notwithstanding), those whose advice will be far more valuable to us, as they will combine with an observation and knowledge of physiology

equal to Dr. Clarke's that which he can never gain, — experience. Perhaps they may be able to convince Dr. Clarke that the physical condition of his own sex is also worthy his consideration.

I. M. K.

## THE UTILITY OF CLASSICAL STUDIES AS A MEANS OF MENTAL DISCIPLINE.

[A Paper read before Wisconsin Teacher's Association, Dec. 30, 1873, by Prof. Wm. F.
Allen, of the State University.]

By this topic I understand to be intended, not a general defence of the disciplinary value of classical studies, but rather a definition and analysis of this value; that is to say, an examination of the kind of benefit derived from them, and the class of students to whom they are best adapted. With this view, I will lay down the proposition that in a course of study the primary object of which is discipline, there is a certain stage at which the ancient classics form the very best basis of instruction; and as a corollary to this, that in any course of study, so far as the object is discipline, the ancient classics are likely to prove the best feature to introduce at a certain stage.

This definition excludes, in the first place, all purely professional courses of study: if the classical languages find a place in these, as e. g. Latin in a medical course and Greek in a theological course, it is for their practical usefulness, not for their disciplinary power; it excludes, in the second place, all the lower grades of common school studies. The great majority of persons leave school at so early an age that their studies must necessarily be such as will be of immediate practical use for them, the common English branches, which every person must have, and which are well enough adapted to be the mental discipline required in their case. Our consideration is therefore confined to what we may call the High School Course and the College Course: in both of these courses discipline is the main thing, and practical utility a secondary one. The proportion of persons who have at once the opportunity and the taste to pursue such a course is small in any community; but the experience of our seats of learning shows that to make this "opportunity," money is far from being the essential; our most brilliant and successful scholars are often those whose "opportunities" were simply "brains" and "will."

I think that the discussions of the last few years have resulted in two important conclusions in regard to College courses; and I think I shall be supported in bringing High School courses under the same category. These are, first, that their primary object is discipline, as I have just assumed; second, that discipline is only the primary, and not the sole object, and must be combined with practical usefulness; that is to say, the problem is to decide what studies combine the highest degree of mental discipline with some degree at least of practical usefulness in the work of life. It may very well be that there are, for example, some developments of theoretical Mathematics, some complicated applications of the rules of Logic, some details of Natural History, which have no conceivable use except in training the reasoning faculties or exhibiting the principles of classification; but that their serviceableness in these respects is so great as to warrant their introduction into a course of study. There may very well be a certain proportion of mere mental gymnastics such as these; but a course made up exclusively, or in any large proportion, of such studies, can find no place in our present schemes of education. Life is too short, and there is too much hard work to be done in it, to allow much of it to be spent in mere preparation; especially since it may be maintained that in general the studies that give us the best training at the same time give us the best tools.

I should not be justified, therefore, in arguing for the introduction of the classical languages into a course which is essentially disciplinary, if it could not be proved that the knowledge of these languages will be serviceable in after life. This point I will not stop to prove, partly because it is not a part of my subject, partly because it has been proved a great many times already. It will be enough to say that there is probably no person who has a fair knowledge of Latin who is not glad of it, and few persons of culture who are devoid of it who would not be glad to have it.

My proposition is, then, that at a certain stage in the High School and College course, the ancient classics form the best means of discipline, and therefore may be pronounced an essential part of such course. To define further what this stage is, it will be necessary to enter into one or two preliminary inquiries, which will at once show their usefulness as a means of discipline, and at the same time define the point in question,—the age or grade at which they will be found most advantageous.

Leaving out of view the moral and æsthetic nature, education must be mainly directed to the development and training of three faculties, - Observation, Memory, and Reason. This is their natural order: we first observe, then remember, then reflect. The first two are devoted to the acquisition of knowledge, the third to its application. Following out this division, we come again to a proposition which has been generally agreed to by educators, and which, therefore, I will not stop to argue, - that the education of the child ought to follow this natural order; that observation and memory should come first and reasoning afterwards. Not that the three can or should at any time be entirely separated: the weak and immature reasoning powers of the child can receive a healthy exercise and development at every step in the acquisition of facts, and it is in this that the skill of the teacher mainly consists. Those teachers are equally at fault who make the entire instruction of the child a matter purely of memory, and who, on the other hand, task their reasoning powers too severely by lessons above their comprehension. These views are supported by the almost unanimous judgment of experienced writers and thinkers upon education, who are constantly urging the introduction of Natural History into the lower grades of schools, and the relegation of the technicalities of English Grammar to the upper classes, where they belong

At the age, say of ten years, when the reasoning faculties should begin to receive a moderate exercise on their own account, no longer incidentally, as in the earlier stages of education, probably the best selection of a study that could be made for this purpose is that which has been made in practice, — Mental Arithmetic. Arithmetic and the other branches of mathematics, continued steadily and moderately, — not in the exorbitant degree which is common in our schools, — should form the staple of intellectual education for some time after this period.

The lower mathematics, however, develop the reasoning facul-

ties only on one side, — that of exact proof; for this they are indispensable, and this is one indispensable side of education. But most demonstration is not exact, but only probable, and to train the reasoning faculties in the direction of probable proof another class of studies is required, — that is to say, to train the mind for its principal work, that of judging of evidence when the evidence is conflicting or incomplete, when it is possible to come to only a provisional and uncertain decision, a mathematical training is inadequate; and as this is the character of most of the labor which the intellect has to perform in life, it follows that the main object of a disciplinary education should be to prepare the student to form judgments upon uncertain and conflicting evidence.

For this end a large number of studies are well adapted, none better than, for example, Geology, Physics, and Political Econ omy, which are studies of the highest educational order. But these are studies which require as a foundation an amount of previous acquirement, in the way of subsidiary sciences or of observation of facts, which make them come full early enough if they are placed in the Senior year, at the very end of a long course of study. The same thing is true in a degree of scientific and moral subjects as a whole: in proportion as they are highly educational they are difficult and complicated; in proportion as they are simple and easy they are unsuited to this, the main end of education, for the reason that they appeal chiefly to the eye and memory, rather than the reasoning faculties. The question is, What branch of studies will best fill the gap, - will best develop in the youthful mind the capacity of reasoning upon doubtful and conflicting evidence, - will form the best introduction to those higher sciences, physical and moral, which task the highest powers of the mind.

For this object there is nothing so good as the concrete study of Language; that is, not the abstractions of grammar, but the practical dealing with words and sentences. The abstract study of Language, whether in the philosophy of grammar or the details of linguistic science, belongs further on, with the higher range of subjects which come in best at a more advanced stage. At the period in question, say from twelve to sixteen years of

age, the work of translating from one language into another handling its concrete forms — calls into active and healthy exercise all the intellectual powers which need to be exercised at this stage. The memory plays a large part, especially in learning words and forms, but the translating itself is essentially a process of reasoning; the rules of inflection, indeed, may be so largely generalized as to make the learning of paradigms principally a matter of classification, and the study of the derivation and relationship of words takes away its purely mnemonic character from the acquisition of a vocabulary. But when it comes to constructions, the memory has very little to do with it; the pupil is obliged from the very first to work logically; the forms must be determined accurately, and the power of each form must be understood, so that each step in translating shall be, not a haphazard effort to make the words mean something, but an intelligent analysis of the elements present, so as to ascertain what they must and actually do mean.

It is not necessary to enter more minutely into this argument, because this, too, is a point well agreed to by educators. Every disciplinary course of study intended for the classes in question - High School pupils and the lower College classes - is, as a matter of fact, made to consist very largely of the two branches, Mathematics and Language. The only point with regard to which there is any difference of opinion, is what languages are best suited to this end. The old system made use of the ancient languages: the present tendency is to institute the modern languages; and I will admit frankly that if there is room but for one language in a course which, while mainly disciplinary, is still intended to finish the pupil's formal education, the claims of some modern tongue could hardly be resisted. Any language can be made highly disciplinary, and every course must have an eye to practical profit as well as to discipline. Our concern is with courses that admit of more than one language.

My proposition is that, apart from practical considerations, the Latin and Greek languages are intrinsically the best for the purposes of discipline; so much the best that, if a course were exclusively disciplinary, there should be no hesitation, and in any course that admits of but two languages, one of these should be one of the two.

The most obvious, although not the weightiest reason, is the very fact of the remoteness and strangeness of the language. It is a mistake, at the age in question, to try to make the work too easy for superficial labor. Real work, but not too much of it, is the right principle. The English language, for example, is as deserving of minute study and as favorable to mental discipline as any; but this study must consist in a considerable degree of abstractions or of recondite points of scholarship, for the reason that the work that first engages the student of a foreign language and which gives him the mental exertion I have described is impossible here. The boy knows what the sentence means, to start with; and if he is told to study its meaning more intently, he is set to a work of subtile and delicate order, unsuited to his rough style of mental labor. For this reason English affords material for only a term or two of severe study adapted to this stage; and what is true of English is true in a degree of the modern languages cognate to English. The pupil finds nearly the same order of words and rules of construction as in his own language, so that he makes use very much more of mere memory and less of the reasoning powers.

This brings us to the second and most important argument, the character of the languages themselves. The reason that translating from French or German is much more a matter of the memory than from Latin or Greek is that their difficulties consist, in so much greater degree, in idioms rather than constructions, -a natural result of their analytical character, or use of auxiliaries and prepositions instead of inflections. There is of course a difference in this respect. German is far less idiomatic than either French or English, and is for this reason the best adapted for purposes of mental discipline; Greek, on the other hand, is more idiomatic than Latin, and for this reason less adapted for purposes of mental discipline. It is in the language, as in the institutions of Rome, that the pupil comes most completely under the dominion of law. Now, the analysis of idioms is a most useful and interesting practice at a more advanced stage, but for beginners they are a matter of pure memory, while laws of construction belong exclusively to the domain of reason. A regular construction may be readily analyzed by the comparatively young pupil, and studied in its principles and application; and these laws of construction, in their varied uses and complicated relations, present precisely the kind of mental exertion which the pupil needs. In proportion, therefore, as a language is syntactical rather than idiomatic, it is adapted to the purposes of mental discipline; and while German and Greek possess this character in a high degree, the Latin possesses it in the highest degree. No language, therefore, - no one, that is, of the languages commonly studied, - can compare with Latin for this purpose. It should, at the same time, be remarked that in arguing for a classical language, it does not necessarily follow that it should be Latin. Many persons are in favor of beginning Greek first, and if our text-books were adapted to this order there would be no conclusive objection to this course. If but one ancient language is to be studied, it might very well be that the superiority of Greek literature might outweigh the superior disciplinary advantages of the Latin language.

As our subject is the disciplinary power of the ancient languages, the discussion might end here: their disciplinary value consists essentially in the two features just indicated, - the rigorous application of laws, and the unfamiliar character of the constructions, which enable them to be studied from a more independent and objective point of view. This does not by any means exhaust the benefits of classical study, but the other benefits come under a somewhat different head. The philosophy and institutions of the ancients, for example, indispensable as they are to any student of philosophy or of political science, may, for this purpose, be as well studied through translations and modern commentaries and treatises as from the original writers. There is, however, one large class of benefits which may very properly come in here, although they have reference rather to the æsthetic than the intellectual nature, — that is, the literary excellence of the ancients. The style, although primarily a matter of taste, is largely also dependent upon the reason; and from this point of view we find the study of the ancient authors as serviceable as that of the ancient languages is in the point of view already considered. This is an advantage that can be obtained only from the study of the original, not of translations; for the very essence of a good translation is that it should not preserve the idioms and stylistic peculiarities of the language from which the translation is made, but should transfer the thoughts and statements of the original into the idioms and forms of expression which belong to the language into which the translation is made.

The qualities of style in which the ancient writers far surpass the moderns are symmetry, precision, and compactness; and these qualities arise chiefly from that same inflectional character which is the source of their syntactical perfection. The genius of the modern languages tempts to a loose, inexact, and irregular style, so much so that if a modern writer makes it his direct aim to reproduce these distinguishing qualities of the classical writers the result is almost sure to be something at once obscure and ungraceful. I can hardly think of any English writer except Lord Bacon, and perhaps Milton and Ralph Waldo Emerson, who has developed a style as elegant and perspicuous and at the same time as terse, exact, and vigorous as that of the ancients. Now, it is of no use for a modern writer to imitate these qualities of the ancients; but it is of the greatest use to study them, to be familiar with them, to have the mind imbued with them, and then, unconsciously, when he is simply doing his best to write correct, idiomatic English, some traces perhaps of their fine qualities will find their way to his pen.

The course of study, therefore, which I favor for those who have the opportunity and taste for a thorough disciplinary training is to begin in childhood with those branches that train the eye and exercise the memory, — drawing, coloring, Natural History, the elements of Geometry, simple applications of numbers, stories from history, and the descriptions of foreign countries. All of these, in a greater or less degree, admit of some exercise of the reasoning powers; and as these powers become more vigorous and mature, their exercise should occupy a larger and longer share of time, until at some period, between twelve and fourteen or even later, the pupil may to the best advantage take up the study of the ancient languages, with a view to regular and systematic intellectual discipline.

It has been necessary for me, in presenting my views as to the

place of the ancient languages in an educational scheme, to touch somewhat upon the province of others, so far as to assign their respective places to other studies. All parts of an educational scheme hang so closely together that one cannot be adjusted without reference to the others. No apology therefore is due for thus transgressing. — From the Wisconsin Teacher.

## HOW TO TEACH LANGUAGES SO THAT THE PUPILS SHALL GAIN THE GREATEST AMOUNT OF KNOWL-EDGE IN THE LEAST TIME, WITHOUT OVERWORK.

PROF. TWEED,

Editor of Massachusetts Teacher:

Dear Sir, — In compliance with your request that I should write some more articles like the "Two Latin Lessons" in November's number of last year, I propose now to write upon several topics, all of which shall involve general principles of teaching Language. I do not say languages, because the principles of teaching ought to be the same whether I teach the vernacular to a child or whether I teach a modern or a so-called classical language to a child or an adult. In order to prove this, I will state some cases from my own experience, — cases which have been or are still under my instruction. In this paper, in order not to be too lengthy, I will only state the principles upon which I work, and then I shall describe one case, the amount of time given in it to instruction by me and to study by the pupils, and, lastly, the result obtained. In another number I may give the method pursued in this case, and describe another case.

TEACH first the language you wish to teach, — not preliminaries, which may be and often are forgotten without serious loss; not unconnected words, as they are not fit subjects of thought without the connection in which they are used; not inflection alone, which, when persevered in day after day, week after week, will destroy the tender net-work of the brain; not rules, as long as there is in the minds of the pupils nothing requiring to be ruled: but teach the language in simple, correct, and complete propositions. In presenting these propositions, try to get their meaning from the pupils by well-directed questions. This makes the pupils' minds active, inventive, expressive. If the pupils cannot reasonably be expected to get the meaning, give it promptly yourself, then pronounce your propositions; so your first lessons will already be reading lessons. In connection with this, teach gradually the inflection of the language, but only as you need it; derive

simple rules, which govern the language, while you teach it and complicated rules after the language is well mastered. If there is no text-book answering your purpose, make the propositions yourself, and put them on the blackboard; and I should prefer this way of teaching a language, at least in the beginning, to the best text-book that could be made.

In the beginning of reading in a book, always prepare the lesson in the class. Do not let the scholars dig out by themselves, until you have shown them how to dig, where to dig, and how to do it successfully. And here in preparing the lesson you have a grand chance for fixing and expanding the vocabulary of your pupils by giving careful attention to etymology and derivation; for the mind remembers easily by association.

If the language to be studied is not the vernacular of the pupils, compare it continually with the vernacular and let any differences between the two be marked and remembered. Before and while doing all this, ask yourself repeatedly the following questions:—

- 1. What is absolutely necessary for my pupils to know, and when is it necessary?
  - 2. What is an accomplishment, if it be known?
  - 3. What is useless for my pupils?

And if you set yourself to teach first that which is necessary and then that which is an accomplishment, and if you do this entirely independent of the text-book, you will not have time to teach that which is useless, dry, disagreeable, — as, for instance, in Latin, four fifths of all irregularities in the gender of nouns, columns of verbs without Supine, other columns without Perfect and Supine, etc. etc.

### FIRST CASE.

Teaching Latin to a class of beginners who do not know anything of Latin, so as to enable the scholars to translate and read correctly without aid one page per day in the Latin Reader, Roman History, after twenty lessons, — and to finish the Roman History in thirty-three lessons from the beginning of the study of Latin.

This class is studying under me now. They began the Roman

History after eight lessons. Recitations, thirty-five minutes each. Study on the part of the pupils, one and a half to two hours daily.

It is not my intention to claim that so much time for study ought to be exacted from every pupil, but only to show how much can be done in a given time.

For method and details of how this is done, see next number of the "Teacher."

FRANCIS H. KIRMAYER.

### CONCERNING HINTS TO CHILDREN.

Month by month, scores of earnest young teachers begin their work, eager to help in the improvement of our common schools. These think that a broader range of thought for children should be opened. For example, to Geography they would link accounts of all that concerns the life of each country which the text-book so dryly and briefly describes, - its scenery, its animals, its plants, and its people, with their dress, manners, occupations, - all that can be presented by the media of books, pictures, museums, energetic and patient study, and a tongue eloquent from enthusiastic interest. They would teach Drawing, to cultivate the eye and hand; Botany and Zoölogy, to call into action those observing powers and that sympathy with living beings so easily aroused in childhood, and which, once thoroughly awake, yield such useful pleasure through all later years. They are sure that the collection of specimens in any branch of Natural History would be entered on with eagerness by most children, though tedious to the majority of grown people, and that this would tend to furnish with accurate knowledge and to cultivate some desirable habits of mind. Those who have ever noticed the delight with which children watch any experiments in Natural Philosophy or Chemistry, and their strong desire to try such for themselves, urge well that the phenomena of these sciences may more profitably be shown to them than to adults.

To others, the boundless field of Literature spreads invitingly. The love for the best books that has "grown with the growth and strengthened with the strength," — will it not have a deeper hold on the man than if grafted late?

And the power to talk and write well must be developed, else the pupils' ideas will be of as little use as an axe in a lame hand.

And the tender conscience, and the keen sense of justice, and the susceptibility of the whole moral nature in childhood,—what earnest teacher dares to leave these out of the account, and shut her eyes to her own awful yet beautiful responsibility?

Giving all these considerations tenfold weight, is the fact that few of the members of our public schools reach any advanced grade. Whatever is to be done with them for life by direct instruction must be done early; with many, in the Primary School only. It is now or never.

And it is right here that perplexity comes. So little time, yet so much to do. And so many studies justly claiming attention, while surely the pupils must be "thorough" so far as they go, and in Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic, must go farther than the mere beginnings.

This difficulty confronts each teacher, whether with twenty pupils to look after or sixty; whether these are graded to admit of the minimum of classes or so mixed as to demand almost the maximum; and whether the "committee" and the parents favor or thwart intelligent freedom of action.

Perhaps we may find some balm for this trouble in a thought which we are inclined to overlook; that is, the value of hints to children. You may not have time to give regular lessons on Botany, but if you show a child a lilac leaf, for instance, and ask for other leaves of like form, your desk will be heaped with heart-shaped specimens the next day, and from time to time, long after, your will have other sorts of leaves brought in, with questions and comments about their forms. Any other like hint about plants will be followed up in the same manner. Print or write a few words on the blackboard, and soon many copies will appear, the voluntary work of admiring imitators. After a few dictation lessons in Drawing, I have seen children eight years old, of their own accord, making original designs, and drawing from memory, and copying from carpet or paper or book, gladly giving themselves more practice in a short time than could be exacted from

them in weeks. I remember the spring morning when I first noticed the ants building their houses. My mother showed them to me, with a few words to excite in me intelligent interest in them. I was then perhaps three or four years old, and often afterwards, all through my childhood, I watched those little creatures, and walked carefully on my way to school to avoid spoiling their work. A single fairy story may set a child's fancy rioting in fields of wonder, as all know who have listened to his talk after hearing one.

Perseus had only the *end* of Ariadne's ball of thread, but it brought him out of the labyrinth. We do not think enough of the value of beginnings. Seed in any decent soil will grow: if we can nourish and further its young life, so much the better, but, once sown, something will come of it.

With children, more than with older pupils, their propensity for imitation and their restless activity are to us a great encouragement to lose no opportunity of beginning a good work of any sort, even if we see no chance of ever returning to the same subject. Once show a pleasant path, and eager little feet will seek it again and again. A boy needs to see another spin a top but once for him to try till he too has the knack.

Moreover, children have a great appetite for facts, most of all for facts which eyes can see, or ears can hear, or restless fingers feel. For something real their interest is ever ready; if it be before school, or at noon, or at recess, it is no matter; so that a teacher whose heart is in this work may stimulate thought at many times and places besides class-rooms and class-hours.

If we consider the process of the natural development of a baby's mind, we may see that much of our work in Primary Schools would better be such as might even be called fragmentary, would better involve the gradual presentation of a great number of miscellaneous facts, as the necessary foundation for the classifications, the comparisons, the deductions, and the inventions which belong to riper years.

Let us who deal with children remember how much every one learns in his first three years of life, and how easily he learns it. Do any of us who are "discouraged because of the way" ever think of attempting to teach so much in amount, or ever in our most Utopian plans include so vast a variety? Though many of the problems of our work may not be solved at present, we ought to accomplish much by striving to follow Nature's lead; and to me this ready seizure of hints by children suggests one mode of useful effort.

JAY.

#### GIFTS.

NEAR a deep window of a little cottage lies a wee boy sleeping. He is very inexperienced in the ways of this world, for this is his first night in it. His nurse has given him his catnip tea, wrapped him carefully in his flannel blanket, and left him sleeping sweetly. All is quiet save a breeze which rustles through the leaves outside and lightens the rose of its burden of perfume as it passes; in through the window shine the silvery moonbeams. But is that light all of the moon, and that rustle of the breeze? No, for see, the window is thronged with a band of spirits bright!

Who are they? What can they wish? Let us listen and hear what they say of themselves to their carriers, the moonbeams: "Loving messengers are we from our heavenly King; precious powers of mind we bring to this little stranger." See, there is one of them ahead of the rest. What a blithe spirit she is, and how beautiful! She has curling brown hair, and bright blue eyes which see everything about her, a shapely nose, and full red lips. Though her movements are quick and active, they are exceedingly graceful and seem accompanied by a low, musical sound; the air is filled with sweet perfumes shaken from her bright dress of many colors. She moves quickly to the side of the child, smooths a scarely perceptible wrinkle in the pillow, examines the softly closed eyelids, over his forehead moves her smooth white hand, sprinkles over him fragrant perfumes, in his ear sings sweet music, and lastly stoops and prints a kiss on the rosy lips. Then she turns to greet two others who are approaching, saying gayly, "I have done my task, given my gift. His eyes they shall see, his ears hear, he shall also taste and smell the good things of earth; and with this kiss, I have given him the power to use these fine instruments of sense, - the power by which he can become acquainted with this beautiful world. Spirits, have you a gift like this?"

Then approaches another, saying, "Though I come not as quickly, yet I too bring a good gift. For what will it profit him though he perceive all the wonders of the world if he forget what he learns? My gift shall be Memory, by which he can recall all the fleeting scenes you open to his wondering eyes, his feelings, and his actions."

Accompanying Memory is a radiant spirit who resembles her somewhat, but is more slender and delicate. Everything about her has an ethereal, heavenly look. Her eyes are of heaven's own blue, her hair floating golden, her dress of the sheerest white gossamer. Have you not seen her? She is the patron saint of painters and sculptors, for she helps them to form their ideals of beauty, and in doing this she gives them glimpses of her own perfect self, which they copy unwittingly. On her pure forehead and in her soulful eyes is seen the impress of perfect character, which is the Christian's ideal. She says, "Fair child, I will give you the inspiration of my spirit, Imagination, which, if you use well, will make you useful among men like the world's artists, poets, inventors. In whatever occupation you engage, it can help you to be a good worker. For yourself, it can make you happy when others are sad; it can create a new world of beauty around you; it can help you to form a manlike character."

Lastly there comes forward a dark, tall, thoughtful spirit. "I, too, bring a gift," she says, "and it is a good gift. But let none of us think, sisters, that hers is the best gift, of the most importance. The mind of the child is like his body. Every part is essential to the rest, and on the well-being of each depends that of the whole. My gift is Reason, Judgment. In his search for truth, it can carry him farther than Perception and more surely than Imagination."

As the spirits gather around the child to take a farewell look, a voice is heard saying, "These angels have each bestowed upon this earth-born child a God-sent gift each, one of which she herself is a perfect type. But all they can give is a seed, a beginning. The development of this beginning into a mind which shall be of use in the world will depend upon himself and his earthly instructors."

# VERMONT DEPARTMENT.

REV. H. T. FULLER AND J. C. W. COXE, EDITORS.

### DANGERS OF SPECIALISMS IN TEACHING.

A CERTAIN class of teachers, especially assistants in large schools, are sought with reference to their qualifications for particular kinds of work. The knowledge of this fact leads many who are preparing to teach to strain every nerve to excel in single departments of science, and many experienced teachers are in the habit of pursuing one or two lines of reading and study to the exclusion of all others. There is advantage in this specialism, and yet danger.

The danger is, first, lest personal culture of a general sort should be neglected, and the teacher become angular, eccentric, and even careless of any attainment exterior to his sphere of labor or favorite channel of investigation. Sometimes lack of refinement or even common courtesy is manifest; sometimes there is utter ignorance of current events, or of the methods of transacting ordinary business. Such a one falls into narrow and unjust ways of thinking; and since thinking makes the man, the character is incomplete, and students have presented to them anything but a model worthy of imitation. Of one like this, it could not be said, as it was recently remarked of a deceased teacher, "He was eminent for his wisdom." There is need in our schools of enthusiastic naturalists, keenly critical mathematicians, thorough linguists, patient and careful instructors of methods, and efficient disciplinarians, yet not less need of symmetrically developed, well-balanced men and women.

A second danger is that specialists will after all give very imperfect instruction. We teach most ourselves; scholars study their teachers more thoroughly than aught else. The latter are the models, if not the ideals, of the former. And, further, the entire guidance of the teacher will tend to be narrow even where the attention is largely secured to text-book or topic. Scholars are not infrequently drilled on a single point till they see clearly

nothing else, and both interest and patience are exhausted. Great intensity may become equivalent to great superficiality.

A knife-blade is the same, whether it is seen edgewise or flatwise. Five hundred cubic yards of soil are worth much more than the same quantity of earth from a shaft. Specialists are likely to miss the true end of education. They may give wise training for technical work, but their methods are often poorly adapted to the needs of the masses of our scholars; they make botanists or chemists or engineers, but too frequently fail to exert strong influence in moulding character after the highest ideals.

H. T. F.

It is singular that the Grangers, who allege that they swear themselves aloof from politics, promise, in at least one State, to make quite a stir in educational matters. The point d'appui is the Agricultural College funds. These were by the Vermont Legislature voted to the University at Burlington, which then sandwiched together the Agricultural and Scientific departments, making, however, at the same time, a separation between the studies of a portion of these two courses. Now it is averred that there is not a single student in the Agricultural course, and that this fact is significant of the utter inutility of the college to the agricultural interests of the State. Neither will the students be farmers nor the farmers students. The "Vermont Farmer," the semi-official organ of the Grangers, makes a demand for the restitution of these funds to the original purpose for which they were granted by Congress, and even threatens judicial proceedings to this end. Cannot the University reclaim a portion of Lake Champlain for use as a model farm? A certain editor might, perhaps, be induced to stock a part of it with fruit.

Whatever henceforth may be sought in the management of the educational interests of the State, let there be no repetition of the incorrigible blunders of the past. School lands voted to institutions of other States, the establishment of three colleges instead of one, and of three normal schools in place of one, the lack of system and uniformity in many features of common school education, are some of the way-marks of past travel, of which, like schoolboys who have whittled desks till they are terribly unsightly, we ought to be greatly ashamed. Two causes are at the root of these mistakes. First, the predominance of sectional and local interests. Nature has, in some respects at least, been a poor foster-mother to us. She gives us mountains that rend us asunder, and rivers and valleys that lead us apart, towards every point of the compass; the soil washes into other States, and nothing but thin mist drifting over our heads comes back in return. Our railroads were built for the use and delight of Portland, Boston, Montreal, and Chicago; hence the tracks, and so the business interests, diverge within and converge without our borders. The horizon of our hill-environed homes has been too much the horizon of our wisdom and sagacity. A Westerner looks forty miles ahead, where an average Vermonter looks forty rods, - except when he is about to emigrate. Whatever will build up Pintville, with its blacksmith's shop, grist-mill, and six dwellings, is the motor-power and motto of the verdant legislator who boards a while, once in two years, at Montpelier, or votes for prudential committee in district meetings.

A second cause of these mistakes is found in the intense individualism which characterizes our people. One man's opinion, forsooth, on any subject whatever, is just as good as another's. An opinion once formed or a course of action once chosen is adhered to with all the pertinacity of the clutch of a closing bivalve. Hence the great difficulty of correcting mistakes or of substituting any new regime for an old one. There is abundant confession of faults, but too little application of remedies. And yet, in spite of unatoned errors, against adverse natural forces, and against the conservatism and even obstinacy of many of the people, there is progress in the cause of education in Vermont. Secondary education is receiving a strong impulse in the establishment of two academies which promise to stand in the foremost rank of such schools. Shall there be a corresponding advance along the whole line? Long strides forward ought to be taken in other directions; bickerings and local jealousies

should be banished, and all heads and hands united in consultation and work for the common weal.

COMPARATIVELY few people in Vermont realize either how much or how efficient work is being done by the Secretary of the Board of Education. The record of Teachers' Institutes, prepared at our solicitation by one of the lady assistants, gives some idea of the varied nature of his labors, occupying three months' time, in that direction. Three weeks, prior to the spring and autumn examinations of common school teachers, are given to meeting the superintendents by counties to arrange for these examinations, - all questions for which, as far as they are written, are prepared under his direction. The rules for the spring examinations of 1874 require written answers to the questions in Arithmetic, Grammar, Geography, and Orthography, an average of sixty-five per cent of which must be correct, and no candidate is allowed a certificate who falls below fifty per cent in any study. For private examinations, a standard of seventy-five per cent is required. We believe that no other State has a better system of examinations than Vermont; it is practically uniform throughout the State, except that the required per cent of correct answers varies in one or two counties.

We most heartily, in the main, concur with the recommendations made by Dr. French in his Institute lectures. But a more imperative need — which he has also faithfully represented — is that of a direct State tax for support of schools. The present inequality of local taxation is abominably unjust. On this and some of the other topics we hope to present carefully prepared articles hereafter.

The forthcoming biennial report of the Board of Education and its secretary promises to be unusually valuable, especially in its statistics; and we hope it will most earnestly plead for greater uniformity in taxation, and for such an advanced course, inat least one of our normal schools, as will sufficiently qualify teachers to give most thorough instruction in the higher English branches in our graded schools and academies.

The new text-books, prescribed by the Board of Education for

use since November last, are, in spite of all opposition of rival publishers and political and personal jealousies, gradually working their way into favor. We might except the Readers, perhaps, but the teachers approve the rest wherever the trial of them has been thorough.

### VERMONT TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

During the months of December, January, and February, Teachers' Institutes were held in twelve of the fourteen counties of the State, beginning at East Dorset, Bennington Co.

The Bennington County Institute was pleasantly opened on the evening of Dec. 8 by an address from Prof. Higley, of Middlebury College. There were afterward evening addresses from Prof. Shaw, of Manchester, Prof. Gould, of Bennington, A. B. Miller, President of Waynesburgh College, Pa., and Dr. French, Secretary of the Board of Education.

The attendance of the teachers was large and their enthusiasm noticeable. The citizens manifested their interest by coming out in goodly numbers to the day as well as the evening sessions.

Secretary French was assisted by Prof. Miller, Miss Guernsey, of the Randolph Normal School, and Mrs. O. H. Kile.

The Institutes at Bellows Falls, Windham Co., Post Mills, Orange Co., and Waitsfield, Washington Co., followed in quick succession. At Bellows Falls, Miss Gilson of St. Alban's took the place of Miss Guernsey, and at Waitsfield, Mr. Ward of Westminster supplied the place Mr. Miller had left vacant.

The work was very practical, giving tried and approved methods of teaching the studies of our common schools. Miss Gilson, with classes of children taken from the audience, illustrated the manner in which the rudiments of vocal music may be taught. Mr. Ward, who has been Superintendent of Schools in Northampton, Mass., illustrated some of the kindergarten methods of teaching young children. Frequent singing, gymnastic exercises, and a query-box added variety and interest to the sessions.

At Waitsfield, Secretary French gave an interesting address upon Entomology. The audience-rooms were generally well

filled throughout the day and crowded during the evening sessions; the interest sometimes amounted to enthusiasm.

The next Institute was held at Enosburgh Falls, Franklin Co., the third week in January. Over one hundred teachers were enrolled. Upon the last evening, Prof. Perkins, of the Vermont University, delivered an address upon Theories of Science, that elicited praise alike from theologians and scientists.

At Springfield, Windsor Co., Mr. Conant, Principal of the Randolph Normal School, assisted in the Institute, and gave an address upon the subject of Normal Schools in Vermont.

At North Hero, Grand Isle Co., but few teachers and not the usual numbers of citizens were present. By reason of illness two of the instructors were absent, and Secretary French did most of the work, giving methods of teaching and hints useful to parents as well as teachers, in the day-time, talking to the citizens on matters pertaining to their schools during the evening.

At Bridport, Addison Co., Feb. 5, 6, and 7, there was a large gathering, nearly one hundred teachers, and citizens enough to fill the commodious church. Prof. Webber, of Middlebury College, read an interesting and valuable paper on the Mission of the Teacher; Prof. Higley read one also interesting and valuable upon the Benefits of Classical Education; Prof. Perkins delivered the address upon Theories of Science; and Secretary French spoke on the great problem of the age,—The Boy. The discussion of methods of school management and the lesson on the use of the globe elicited much interest. The hospitality of the citizens was noticeable, as many strangers were not only entertained, but conveyed to and from the depot, a distance of eight miles, free of charge.

At Newport, Orleans Co., Feb. 9, 10, and 11, a large and enthusiastic assembly of teachers and citizens listened to what the Secretary and his assistants had to tell them about educational matters in general and special studies in particular. The Secretary, Rev. Mr. Fuller of St. Johnsbury, and Dr. Cutting of Lunenburgh, State Geologist, filled the evenings to the satisfaction of large audiences.

At Island Pond, the attendance was smaller, but a good degree of interest was manifested. Mr. Ward spoke the first evening of

the part that tidiness and manners have to play in the training of young children. Dr. Cutting gave an illustrated lecture upon the Wonders of the Microscope; and upon Friday evening, Secretary French addressed the people.

At Peacham, Caledonia Co., Miss Guernsey was again on the list of instructors, and Miss Gilson was absent. Rev. H. T. Fuller, Secretary French, and Dr. Cutting cared for the evenings. The audience increased steadily from the beginning, until the Academy Hall became too "strait" for them. Dr. Cutting's address upon the Atmosphere was popular in its character, and at its close a lively hour was spent in asking questions, which the speaker answered readily and with great good humor.

At Johnson, Lamoille Co., Miss Lowry, of the Johnson Normal School, was added to the list of instructors. Secretary French, Dr. Cutting, and Prof. Perkins delivered addresses.

The attendance was good, and considerable interest was manifested throughout.

The Institute closed with a sociable at the Academy Hall,

The evening addresses have been a noticeable feature of these Institutes. The practical character of the topics discussed, the thoughtful and Christian treatment these topics have received at the hands of the teachers, merit more than a passing notice.

The Secretary of the Board has conducted all the Institutes. During the evening sessions he has taken pains to present to the people the facts with regard to the present condition of our schools, which should be interesting to every citizen of the State. He has also shown the need of legislation which shall secure to us the following benefits: I. The town system of schools.

2. A course of study for all the public schools of the State.

3. Intermediate supervision; and 4. Evening schools.

F. . K. K.

#### GENERAL INTELLIGENCE.

SPECIAL NOTICE.— Contributions for the Vermont Department of the "Teacher" for June should be sent to J. C. W. Coxe, Montpelier, not later than May 12. Items of intelligence are especially solicited.

NORTHFIELD expects at the end of this year to lose the Principal of its High School, Mr. A. R. Savage, who is already admitted to the bar, and will next year begin the practice of law.

WELLS RIVER is building a fine public school-house under the supervision of Mr. Q. Packard, of St. Johnsbury, the architect. We commend Mr. Packard to the attention of building committees and others who desire tasteful plans for school buildings.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT RANDOLPH. — The entering classes in both courses are larger than ever before, numbering forty-six in the First course and seventeen in the Second. The graduating class in the First course numbers thirty-six; in the Second, six. A valuable herbarium, consisting of a hundred sheets of finely-arranged specimens, has recently been presented to the school by Mr. A. P. Morgan of Pomfret, the author of "Wood's Plant Record." The formation of herbariums, together with the drawing of forms, constitutes an important feature of the instruction in Botany in the school.

St. Johnsbury Union School District, at its last annual meeting, voted to request the Prudential Committee to consider the expediency of suspending the High School and of sending the scholars who have passed the Grammar School grade to the Academy. Two reasons are urged in favor of this change: first, the superior attractions and advantages of the Academy, which draw a considerable portion of the students from the High School and make it difficult to keep up any corps d'esprit in the latter; and, secondly, the crowded condition of the lower departments, rendering essential some provision for more room. A new High School building must be erected or an addition be made to the present structure, unless an arrangement of the kind proposed is adopted.

SAXTON'S RIVER. - A meeting of the trustees of the Vermont Academy was held at this place Monday, March 30. An agent was empowered to purchase the land decided upon for the site of the school, and a committee chosen to procure plans for the proposed buildings, to be submitted to the action of the Board. Various other committees were also chosen to take into consideration the selection of teachers, the course of study to be pursued, etc. The first \$100,000 has been subscribed and nearly \$10,000 towards the next \$100,000, of which \$6,000 was raised at the meeting on Monday. As soon as the total subscription reaches \$125,000, the buildings will be commenced, and this event would seem near at hand. It will be remembered that this is a project of the Baptists of Vermont, and although owned and controlled by that denomination, it does not propose to be a sectarian school, but to take rank as one of the best institutions of its kind in the State, and thus command the patronage of all classes of citizens. We learn that since the meeting, the land for the site has been purchased, and the success of the project is doubtless now assured beyond question. The officers of the Board are: Judge Wm. M. Pingry, President; Rev. M. A. Wilcox, Secretary; Mial Davis, Treasurer; Lawrence Barnes, J. J. Estey, and C. Hibbard, Executive Committee.

# RESIDENT EDITOR'S DEPARTMENT.

WHEN the Sultan was thanking the philanthropist, Howard, for saving the lives of so many of his soldiers by his medical skill, and asked him to name a reward adequate to his services, Howard is reported to have answered, "Leave to preserve more of thy subjects still."

In seeking the most appropriate "memorial" of Agassiz, his friends and the friends of education seem to have taken for granted that his answer would have been similar to that of Howard,—"The means of doing more for science, and more to raise the dignity of the profession" for which he has done so much, and of which he was, perhaps, the greatest ornament.

We hope the memorial service on the twenty-eighth of May, 1874, referred to in the circular which we append, will afford substantial evidence that the teachers and pupils of Massachusetts appreciate to some extent what Agassiz has done for them.

### THE AGASSIZ MEMORIAL.

TEACHERS' AND PUPILS' FUND.

Boston, March 10, 1874.

Louis Agassiz, Teacher. This was the heading of his simple will, this was his chosen title; and it is well known, throughout this country and in other lands, how much he has done to raise the dignity of the profession and to improve its methods. His friends, the friends of education, propose to raise a memorial to him, by placing upon a strong and enduring basis the work to which he devoted his life, the Museum of Comparative Zoology, which is at once a collection of natural objects, rivalling the most celebrated collections of the Old World, and a school open to all the teachers of the land.

It is proposed that the teachers and pupils of the whole country take part in this memorial, and that on the birthday of Agassiz, the twenty-eighth day of May, 1874, they shall each contribute something, however small, to the TEACHERS' AND PUPILS' MEMORIAL FUND, in honor of LOUIS AGASSIZ; the fund to be kept separate, and the income to be applied to the expenses of the Museum.

JOHN EATON, Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

JOSEPH HENRY, Sec. Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.

JOSEPH WHITE, Sec. Board of Education of Massachusetts, Boston.

W. T. HARRIS, Supt. Public Schools, St. Louis, Mo.

EDWARD J. LOWELL, Boston.

JOHN S. BLATCHFORD, Boston.

JAS. M. BARNARD, Treas. Teachers' and Pupils' Fund, Boston.

All communications and remittances for the Teachers' and Pupils' Fund of the "Agassiz Memorial" may be sent to the Treasurer, Jas. M. Barnard, Room 4, No. 13 Exchange Street, Boston.

ANOTHER eminent teacher has passed away. After the death of Agassiz, it would have been difficult to name a greater ornament to our profession than Prof. Alpheus Crosby. For extent and accuracy of scholarship, for simplicity, purity, and integrity of character, and as a model in almost every department of teaching, he stood in the very first rank.

It is by such men as Agassiz and Crosby that the profession has been magnified and made honorable; every teacher, in however humble a position, occupies a higher place in the community for what they have done. It is fitting, then, that we should honor their memory and emulate their virtues. We may not be able to fill the places made vacant by their death, but we may all be better teachers and truer men and women that they have lived.

We hope some one competent to do it will prepare an article for the "Teacher" which will be a fitting memorial of the man and the teacher.

THE article entitled "Segmentation" in our March and April numbers should have been credited to Prof. C. O. Thompson, and that on "Objective Teaching" to Rev. H. F. Harrington.

## THE STUDY OF THE OLD ENGLISH POETS.

It is such a pity that there is so little real study of the old English poets in our public schools, or indeed in any schools or among any large class of people! So much time is spent in the study of Greek and Latin or French and German, that there is none left for the study of the best works in our own mother-tongue. But is it not foolish to push aside the good that lies close under our hand for that which we can only reach, at best, by years of patient toil, and which the majority will be pretty sure to miss entirely? Can the words of Homer or Virgil, Goethe or Corneille, be as strong intellectual food as the ideas of Chaucer and Spenser, Shakespeare and Milton? And yet how many more young people in the schools have worked their toilsome way through the "Æneid" than have read the "Faery Queene" or "Paradise Lost." Even if they could overcome the difficulties of the language enough to get into the spirit of Virgil so that he became real to them and his writings helped to form their minds and characters, it might be questioned whether it were not better to train them first in the spirit of their own English race. And how many of those who read Virgil ever do get into the spirit of it, or are inspired by it to love Latin literature? Is it not mere words to most of them, and do not the majority of boys and girls close their Latin books forever when they leave school? They must get some good from the study of any ancient or modern language, they may get a great deal, for I have firm faith in the languages as means of education; but do they, can they, get enough to pay for the time spent on that *instead* of on their own, which they are to use all their lives, and which has a literature rich in power and beauty, which will be a source of life-long help and pleasure to them if they learn to appreciate and love it? It seems to me that the study of our own language and literature should rank first in importance and claim the largest share of time, and that the others should do their good work in their subordinate places.

The reason often given for not reading the old English poets, especially Chaucer, is their obsolete language. That excuse can have no weight in the presence of years spent on Latin, and, moreover, it has no great weight in itself. A few hours of study in the Introduction and Notes to R. Morris's edition of "The Prologue and Knight's Tale," Clarendon Press Series, will enable any one to read the old English understandingly, and only practice is necessary to read it enjoyably. I speak positively, because I read it with a class of girls seventeen or eighteen years old, and found from experience how weak the excuse was, and found, indeed, what a charm there was in the antique language, how it often added piquancy and zest to some witty saying of Chaucer, or threw a dreamy beauty and vague glory over the poems of Spenser, bringing us again the speechless, credulous wonder of childhood, when the sense of words was large and dim, and the world of imagination was nearer than the world of fact. As one of the girls said about it, "Spenser speaks not in the language of his time, but in the language used when people heard and almost believed the stories of knights and fairies told around the fireside. This antique language gives the final tint to Spenser's picture of fairy-land; it is the bridge Bifröst by which we ascend to the unreal world."

And I found, too, how much real delight the girls had in the old poet. He is so fresh and natural and hearty that you can no more resist him than you can resist the happy influence of a bright June day. You may say of his verse as he does exultantly of the May-time,—

"Oh the litel birddës how they synge!

Oh the fresshë flourës how they sprynge!"

And in these days of magazine literature, highly-wrought stories, whose plot is labyrinthine and whose language is "full of foaming phrases that go off with a pop like a champagne cork," or as flat as the champagne that has lost its sparkle, it is a rest and refreshment to follow his tales, which, as Lowell says, "run on like one of our inland rivers, sometimes hastening a little and turning upon themselves in eddies that dimple without retarding the current; sometimes loitering smoothly, while here and there a quiet thought, a tender feeling, a pleasant image, a golden-hearted verse, opens quietly as a water-lily, to float on the surface without breaking it into a ripple."

And the same class read Spenser with even more delight, in spite of many very emphatic statements before we began that it would be impossible to like him as well as Chaucer, and prolonged efforts on the part of some to make the statements good.

It seems to me impossible to read the Faerie Queene through without getting into its charmed atmosphere. It is so stately and graceful in form and movement, so rich in coloring, so exquisite in adornment, so flooded with "a glory that never was on land or sea," that you realize at last what the Spirit of Poetry herself might write.

To show how genuine was the girls' admiration, and how vital the book was to them, I copy some extracts from their essays, written after they had finished or nearly finished the Faerie Queene, and before they had read any criticisms by others:—

"The first thing that strikes us in the 'Faerie Queene' is the metre, — the poet's natural form, for he invented it. It has a peculiar fascination; it does not excite, but we cannot get away from it; like the fascination of the waves on the shore, we are never ready to go, but must see one more.

"The next is the succession of beautiful pictures."

All the girls spoke of these beautiful pictures, which have won for Spenser, in addition to his honored title of the "Poet's poet," the no less glorious one of the "Painter's poet." The poem opens with one that at once claims our interest, "A gentle knight pricking on the plaine, Ycladd in mightie armes and silver shield," with "a lovely ladie" riding by his side "upon a lowly asse more white than snow," and followed by her "lasie dwarfe" "that farr behind did lag." Then follows the hideous picture of Errour in her Den and of the Knight's battle with her. All through the poem there are scattered these fearful pictures that stand out "as proofs of power" in our gentle Spenser "like bas-reliefs." The strange procession of the Seven Deadly Sins, the darksome Cave of seducing Despayre, Malbecco leaping from "the rocky hill, over the sea suspended dreadfully," and finding with horror that he cannot kill himself, are among the most striking. And what could be more lovely than the picture of Una when, —

"One day, nigh wearie of the yrksome way,
From her unhastie beast she did alight;
And on the grasse her dainty limbs did lay
In secrete shadow, far from all mens sight;
From her fayre head her fillet she undight,
And layd her stole aside: Her angels face,
As the great eye of heaven, shyned bright,
And made a sunshine in a shady place;
Did never mortale eye behold such heavenly grace."

Or more touching than the effect of her beauty upon a "ramping lyon" that, "greedy after blood," rushed suddenly from the thickest wood, and seeing her, stopped amazed "forgat his furious forse," and "instead thereof, kist her wearie feet and lickt her lilly hands."

The variety of these pictures is wonderful; and stately Belphœbe repelling the "vaine Braggadochio," and fearful Florimel, with her face "as clear

as christall stone" and "faire yellow locks," flying from the "griesly foster," are equally understood by the poet. So the House of Morpheus, where

"Careless Quiet lyes Wrapt in eternall silence, farre from enemyes,"

Has its contrast in the Cave of Mammon, before whose door

"Sat self-consuming Care,
Day and night keeping wary watch and ward
For feare lest Force or Fraud should unaware
Break in, and spoil the treasure there in gard."

And there are many, many more: the Idle Lake; the Bowre of Bliss; the arras in the House of Busyrane "woven of gold and silke" and figuring a whole mythology; the procession of the Sea-gods at the wedding of the Thames and the Medway; and especially the glorious vision of Arthur, with "his hautie helmet horrid all with gold," with its dragon crest, from whose mouth "flamed bright sparckles fiery redd, that suddeine horrour to fainte heartes did shew," and his closely-covered shield that was "all of diamond, perfect, pure, and cleene"; and those where the fair and noble Britomart appears, for, as one of the girls says, "Fair Britomart circles about herself some of the most fascinating of these pictures. Nothing can exceed in beauty her meeting with Artegall, or the descriptions of her adventures in delivering Amoret. Of all the scenes in the 'Faery Queene,' I give the preference to the one where Britomart descends fearlessly into the dark dungeon where Busyrane is torturing the helpless Amoret. We see him fearfully revoking his charms, while golden-haired Britomart stands over him with her flashing sword, undismayed by the thunder and lightning and shaking of the castle." The variety of the pictures is wonderful, and (I quote here entirely from essays by the class) "all these pictures are really the contrast between truth and falsehood in all their forms."

"The first book is the most complete, and contains the true and pure ideal of chivalry; but as human characters, the personages do not exactly please us, the human is a little subordinated to the allegory, and we do not feel satisfied with Una and the Red Crosse until we know what they represent."

The same thought is hinted at here: "Of all the female characters, Britomart stands first. The idea of her going round dressed in armor, cutting off heads and killing, is repulsive; but after all it is her enchanted spear — her own purity — that protects her, and when she takes off the heavy armor, and —

'Her golden locks that were in trammels gay Upbounden, did themselves adoune display, And raught unto her heels; like sunny beams That in a cloud their light did long time stay,'

She is as beautiful and womanly as could be wished."

Another girl says: "The allegory is plain though not prominent throughout; and although one seldom stops to trace it minutely, the fact that the physical struggles of the men and women are only the robes of moral con representative as any: -

flicts and victories is never absent from the reader's mind." And this brings me to a point I desire to speak of, — the importance of the allegory in the "Faerie Queene." One constantly meets with such expressions as this in reading about Spenser: "I need not say the allegory is to be forgotten." (Sir James Mackintosh.) Perhaps Hazlitt's constantly quoted passage is as

"Some people will say they cannot read the Faery Queene on account of the allegory. They are afraid of the allegory, as if it would bite them; they look at it as a child looks at a painted dragon, and think it will strangle them in its shining folds. This is very idle. If they do not meddle with the allegory, the allegory will not meddle with them. Without minding it at all, the whole is as plain as a pike-staff." But I cannot quite believe that. It seems to me that the inner meaning was constantly in Spenser's mind, and that we cannot neglect it without losing the heart of the poem. We shall have left a fascinating story full of lovely pictures and touched everywhere with the golden light of poetry, but all will be extravagant and improbable. The Red-Crosse Knight must represent a brave soul starting forth to battle in the cause of Truth (Una), being led astray by Falsehood (Duessa), almost dying of despair (in the Cave of Despayre), repenting and being helped by Faith, Hope, Love, and Patience, finally overcoming the Dragon-Evil, and being united to Truth once more; or he becomes an absurd man, trying to overcome an impossible creature with a tail three furlongs in length and a body in proportion, and, more absurdly, succeeding. But the allegory is plain enough; we are told it all in the very names of the characters and the heading of the canto, "The Legend of the Knight of the Red Crosse, or of Holinesse."

If to this general spiritual allegory we add the historical, and let the Red Crosse represent England in the sixteenth century, Una the Protestant, Duessa the Roman Church, then we have added to our knowledge of the times, and gone deeper into the depths of Spenser's mind, only to admire the power that could carry on so many trains of thought consistently and never let them interfere with the truest poetry, that seems to flow easily along, guided only by the natural course of the story or the dictates of the freest fancy. We may carry the allegory still further, and question whether Duessa stood also for Mary Queen of Scots, Belphæbe for Elizabeth, Timias for Walter Raleigh, Arthur himself for Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester, or perhaps let us hope so - for Philip Sydney; but these are side issues, interesting but not absolutely necessary; the main allegory is always necessary. If we let Britomart represent only a woman, disguised as a knight, seeking her unknown ideal lover amid many dangers, and everywhere, as a knight, righting wrongs and helping the distressed, though she may seem to us strong and tender and exquisitely fair, the idea has not all the dignity of Martial Britain seeking the ideal Justice, whose image she holds ever in her heart, true always to her aim, true always to herself.

The third and fourth books owe their glory to Britomart, the most interesting character in the whole poem; fair, flying Florimel and faithful Amoret only increase our admiration for her more complete character. I have left Arthur till the last, but after all he is the central figure. The Arthur of Spenser and of Tennyson have the same meaning; they are the embodiment of Truth; and the way the two poets have treated them show us the difference in their views of the world. Tennyson's Arthur is true and noble, but alas! the world is not ready for him; he tries in vain to raise men to his standard: at last he dies broken-hearted, promising, however, to return again: some day the world may receive truth. Spenser's Arthur is truth everconquering, and, in spite of evil, the strongest power in the world."

Speaking of Spenser's love of nature, one girl says: "Spenser did not enjoy Nature as Chaucer did. His woods were peopled with nymphs, every spring and stream was the abode of fairy or demon, every cloud the towering castle or trailing robe of some beautiful being of his imagination."

And another: "Spenser's appreciation of Nature seems broader, yet I miss in him those simple outbursts in praise of Nature that so charm one in Chaucer."

And yet another: "In this fairy-land of the poet we seldom see the rude forces of Nature: Phœbus lights the world with his joyous face, Neptune's mighty presence stills the raging waters, and at times Jupiter thunders through the heavens."

Of Spenser as a poet, one says: "Spenser's mind was cosmopolitan; any form in which beauty had been expressed was natural to him; Greek gods and Celtic knights walk with equal grace in his Fairy-land. Of all literatures, Spenser seems to have delighted most in mythology, - in those great poems which all nations write in their childhood, and whose melody is ever heard in the songs of their greatest children. . . . We try to compare Spenser with some other poet, in order better to understand his position; but we cannot get hold of him. He is like his old man with the net : we take him up as a precious stone, and seek to compare him with other jewels; he turns into a bird and flies singing up to heaven. . . . He is a philosopher, and the basis of his philosophy is the beauty of truth. . . . Spenser is not the greatest of poets, for with all his power he never reaches our sympathies; he appeals to the intellect rather than to the heart. We admire his characters, but feel as if they lived in a different world from ours, governed by laws of its own. If a fair damsel is in distress, we have no impulse to help, — the poet will surely provide a brave knight for every distressed damsel. Spenser's world is not like ours. Here things end sadly, and many a wrong is never righted, and we must hope for a future to right all things: in Spenser's world all things are done justly, punishment and reward succeed directly wrong and right doing. . . . In Spenser the trials of life are glorious battles, and victory is sure to valiant souls. His heroes have no doubt mixed with their faith; they see plainly into the future and not 'as through a glass darkly.' For this reason the poet never rises to the height of human joy or reaches the depth of human sorrow. . . . If not the greatest poet, Spenser stands high in the second rank; and we can say of him as of Columbus, He has given us a new world."

No one will expect from school-girls the depth of thought or elegance of

expression of older writers. I have quoted the passages as they were first written, with the exception of two, which the pupil herself altered so that her idea might be expressed more clearly. These essays seemed to me to show that the gentle poet had found his way into their minds, and warmed and brightened them, as I believe he always will those who will take a little pains to know him.

We read five books of the Faerie Queene, the Prothalamion and Epithalamiom, Hymns to Love and Beauty, parts of Colin Clout and Mother Hubberd's Tale; and then, anxious lest we had spent too much time on Spenser when there was so much else to read, I stopped and let them sum up their impressions, meaning then to go on to something else; but after they had faithfully done their best at the very difficult task of writing an essay about Spenser, they begged to read the sixth book in class, — and who could have refused? Perhaps this is a stronger proof than the essays of the genuineness of their interest.

The Faerie Queene is an almost inexhaustible store-house of beauty, and one from which all ages can draw; the stories as stories would fascinate the youngest child, they are marvellous fairy tales, and the exquisite poetry has touched the latent imagination of many a youthful poet with a touch of fire and been the comfort of old age. Pope says, "I read the Faerie Queene when I was about twelve, with infinite delight, and I think it gave me as much when I read it over about a year ago." And as to his moral influence, hear Keble, whose own pure use of his art makes him a fit judge: "The Faerie Queene is a continued, deliberate endeavor to enlist the restless intellect and chivalrous feeling of an inquiring and romantic age on the side of goodness and faith, purity and justice. . . . To Spenser, therefore, on the whole, the English reader must resort as being pre-eminently the sacred poet of his country."

Is it not truly a pity that he should be a mere name to so many?

Shakespeare is much more widely read than Chaucer and Spenser, and the increasing number of editions of his works and of clubs bearing his name show that he is becoming more and more a vital power among the people; but when we think that the civilized world acknowledges him as one of its four greatest poets, perhaps its very greatest, how far behind his desert comes our admiration, and how far behind our wonder comes our knowledge! Are we worthy of so great a gift, when we take so little pains to use it? It seems to me that every school or system of schools in an English-speaking country should make Shakespeare a special study, should take the time for that as one of its most important studies.

I would not be thought to undervalue the literature of other nations: of Germany, who could produce a Goethe and Schiller; of Italy, who could produce a Dante, that "voice of ten silent centuries" singing "its mystic, unfathomable song"; certainly not of Greece, with its Homer and Sophocles and Plato; but I think we must come to them when our minds have grown strong by the study of our own master-spirits, speaking plainly to us in our own mother-tongue. How can we appreciate the more remote, until we have learned to appreciate what is close to us? And if we neglect our

homes to travel abroad, may we not find - as so many do - that we have "sold our own lands," merely "to see other men's," and must come home a beggar at last?

E. A. C.

# A BETTER KNOWLEDGE OF ARITHMETIC IN LESS

THE demand for more arithmetic in less time is increasing, and becoming more urgent, as new subjects of study are multiplied, the vacations lengthened, and the daily sessions shortened. Some labor-saving process must be invented, or teachers will be found wanting in the duties required of them.

To this end, we would direct attention to some of the numerous eccentricities of the text-books, as being partial causes of the present unsatisfactory progress in this important branch of school study.

Through most studies there is a logical line running, on which ideas, by association, may flash with lightning speed, and upon which the memory may string the connected thoughts, and recall them at leisure. But let any one attempt to trace such a line through any of the school arithmetics, and, so far as he can find one, it will more resemble the forked lightning, in its zigzag course.

Though a subject may be presented in a lucid manner and in logical order, it is often obscured by an abstract rule that is not in accordance with the illustration; but, as is supposed, in a more convenient form for use. For example: in the latest book that has come into my hands, I find, as usual, the two methods of subtraction. The author says, "The former is, perhaps, the more philosophical, but the latter is more convenient;" and gives his rule for the unphilosophical method.

Now, would not a moment's reflection decide that method most convenient which is best understood; and that best understood which is most philosophical? Therefore, the philosophical method should be the only one presented to the young learner.

It is believed, however, that the greater convenience consists in habit; and if the better method were practised until it should become habit, that method would be the most convenient.

Instead of meeting a subject in a direct manner, they back into it. when an integral number is to be multiplied by a fraction, they direct the learner to multiply the fraction by the integral number. If this subject were met directly, the scholar, having learned in this more simple process how to multiply by a fraction, he would be prepared for the more complex process of multiplying a fraction by a fraction, which has no such back way.

The process of dividing by a fraction is taught still more unphilosophically, or, we might say, it is not taught at all; for we are told to "Invert the divisor, and proceed as in multiplication"; that is, to do a certain thing, do precisely the opposite, and it will answer the same purpose. Authors and teachers may understand these ways of backing into results, but enlightened experience knows that it is too much to expect of simple learners to understand the magic. True, they may acquire a facility of doing it while their memory is fresh on the subject. How often do we hear teachers complain that their scholars do not retain what they have been taught. May they not trace the cause, in part, to faulty text-books?

Is it surprising that our scholars should be puzzled on finding division operated by multiplication?

Such obstacles in the way of progress are too numerous to be examined, or even specified in this article. They have been copied from book to book, and teachers prefer to teach as they have learned. Thus the evil is perpetuated.

The definitions are no less faulty than the rules. As an example, "A common multiple is a number that can be divided by two or more numbers without a remainder." Now, let any teacher who permits this definition to pass unchallenged, ask a class to give him a multiple of 6, and probably he will be surprised to find more in favor of 3 and 2, than of any different number. But why should he be surprised? The definition surely implies division. The name looks and sounds much like multiplication; and the thing itself is really a product. Why should not the definition run in accordance with the thing defined, instead of running in the opposite direction?

It is believed that proportion is made too formal and abstract; and in that way the reasoning powers of the scholars are too little exercised, as indeed is the case in most of the processes. The manner of expressing a ratio in the fractional form is in fault. To illustrate: If five yards cost three dollars, what would seven yards cost? Answer: Seven yards would cost ? of three dollars, which is four dollars and twenty cents. This answer is direct, logical, and natural. It is readily grasped by a scholar whose reasoning powers have had proper exercise.

The abstract method runs thus: As five yards is to seven yards, so is three dollars to the answer. Multiply the second and third terms together, and divide by the first term; which gives the answer, four dollars and twenty cents.

These two processes need only to be thus contrasted to satisfy any unprejudiced mind which an intelligent scholar would prefer, and best remember.

Let the objector attempt to solve this problem, thus analytically, by using the ratio expressed in the more common form, that is, §. He will either abandon it, and use the antecedent for denominator, or subside into the abstract method.

Is not the common usage a stumbling-block in the way of the learner? A naturally dull scholar, and those made dull by dogmatic abstractions, would blindly follow the rule, and temporarily, while they remembered the rule, make a better show than an intelligent scholar, who had not yet overcome the hinderances, and become a law unto himself.

Is any other than this practical argument needed to show which form of the ratio is most natural and convenient in its practical applications?

The principle of proportion runs through numerous arithmetical processes; and correct ideas of it are necessary to harmonious treatment, successful

teaching, and intelligent study of the subject. Its importance will justify a more particular examination.

With one term (a) and the ratio (r) given, may be formed the general series, a, ar, ar<sup>2</sup>, ar<sup>3</sup>, etc. . . . ar <sup>11</sup>, —

Any three successive terms form a proportion, thus, a: ar=ar: ar2.

Any four successive terms form a proportion, thus, a: ar=ar<sup>2</sup>: ar<sup>8</sup>. —

Each consequent is the product of the antecedent by the ratio.

In like manner, in any geometrical proportion, each consequent is the product of the antecedent by the ratio, thus, a: 6=m: n;  $a \times b=6$ , and  $m \times b=n$ .

Indeed, a proportion is only a part of a geometrical progression. This is obvious where there is a mean proportional; and in other cases the proportion may be made a continuous series by inserting a sufficient number of means. In such a series, all are agreed that the ratio is expressed by writing the antecedent for the denominator of the ratio in its fractional form.

It therefore becomes those who change the natural order of the terms in the ratios, in treating a proportion abstracted from the geometrical series to which it belongs, to show something gained, to compensate for the inconvenience, and the loss of consistency.

The awkwardness of the common method is felt by authors when they treat geometrical progression; and they abandon it for the other method, without a word upon the inconsistency. One book, however, of recent date, deigns to notice the subject. After having defined the ratio as the constant multiplier, in a note the author says, "This is an unfortunate use of the term ratio. It were better to use the term rate." But what is rate, but ratio? Does contracting the name change the thing? He further says, "To harmonize the use of the term in proportion, with this use, may have led some authors to define ratio, as used in proportion, as the quotient of the consequent divided by the antecedent." Why should not ratio and proportion harmonize, wherever used?

"This definition," he says, "has neither logic nor common usage to support it." The statement, however, is here ventured, that the definition has logic in its support; and will eventually have common usage also, when the demand for more arithmetic in less time, shall be satisfied.

In that happy time, we may expect to see the numerous definitions, rules, and illustrations of arithmetic harmonize; to see less splitting of hairs in unimportant matters; less incumbering the books with the tracing of the nomenclature to Greek and Latin roots, for unclassical scholars; less of obsolete subjects, and other matters that are more appropriate to an encyclopedia; less of intricate problems, illustrating no principle, and serving no good purpose. We may expect to see, even in the lower grades of schools, the reasoning powers brought into activity, by more use of visible objects in illustration, and less of rote teaching, and less of rote learning.

J. S. R.

### EDUCATION OF GERMAN GIRLS.

HANOVER, March, 1874.

THE German women are stronger than the American women; one is compelled to admit that. But it is easy to account for it; exercise, in doors and out, fresh air, plain food, and little brain work for generations back, have laid a good foundation physically for the present and future generations. The chief end of woman here, is to qualify herself to perform the duties of married life in a manner acceptable to her future lord and master, and to get married if she can. To this end, she must learn to cook, — soups, meats, puddings, and sour-krout. They buy bread, cheese, and sausage; pies and cake are unknown. She must be able to wash and iron, and must understand the mystery of waxed floors. Then she must take all manner of private lessons in sewing, dress-fitting, cutting and making children's clothes, hair-dressing, the finer sorts of embroidery, making paper flowers, etc.; must cultivate music if she have any talent for it, — the ability to dance is inborn, and does not need any cultivation; then she must go to live a year with some good woman to learn housekeeping, and finish off.

There she sees something of society, and learns to talk about other people's eyes and noses, and other elevated subjects. And all this time she has been knitting for herself perhaps fifty or sixty pairs of stockings, and making underclothes by the dozens, besides the Christmas and birthday presents which come in rotation year after year.

And then, when she is married, she must order the house, wait on her husband, take patiently his scolding when the grocer's bills are too large, or anything else displeases him, scold her children, and take in general a place above the servants, but below the men. I am told that the wives of the educated and salaried men have often a sad, hard lot, because their husbands so look down upon them, and hold the purse-strings so tight. But the maidens who are proud, say they would rather marry an educated man, than a mechanic, though the latter can make them happier.

The girls may study general literature, and English and French, and a very little Arithmetic, but no Latin or Algebra. The men have a horror of an educated woman. They make wry faces when an American woman innocently expresses a desire to study Chemistry in their Polytechnic schools, if that could be allowed. And the few women who go through the seminary, and fit themselves to teach, take positions in private families. Teaching in the schools belongs for the most part to the men. I have heard stout, healthy girls say that they should like to fit themselves to give instruction, but they are too nervous to teach; which means, simply, that they are irritable and impatient, because they have not learned self-control; for I have yet to discover any influence here which reaches the moral nature of woman, and disciplines and moulds and elevates her character. Consequently she is unprepared to give out any influence which shall lift others morally and spiritually, and she does not attempt it. Her children receive all their religious instruction during the first morning hour in the day school, and in the special Bible lessons preceding their confirmation, which takes place at fourteen or fifteen years. The strict obedience and outward respect demanded from children are good, but one misses the deep, gentle influence which New England mothers have on the characters of their children,— the power which springs from moral culture, and which is silently exercised.

The men, by a long course of school training, get a development which gives them a superiority felt and acknowledged by both sexes. But is that development symmetrical? Would their natures not be nobler and purer if a mother's or a sister's influence, and not the state alone, had helped to elevate them? I shall not answer my own questions till I have been here longer; but the universal smoking and beer-drinking and scolding, and the little church-going, have partly satisfied me.

German women are not ignorant, and do not lack accomplishments; but they do lack the power which mental culture gives, and society feels the loss. It is questionable whether it is worth while to envy them their physical superiority, if the cramping of the soul is its inseparable accompaniment. The idea of sheltering woman and keeping her dependent would be very pretty, if she were to live an ideal life; but it is plainly not the way to fit her to do the real work which every woman does either well or ill. Even one whom the so-called Woman's Rights movement has never interested, on missing here a familiar something from our New England atmosphere, is set to thinking, and the idea of working, for women, acquires a new significance.

The programme of the Normal school for women is before me. The course is for two years. The number of pupils is one hundred. The studies for the new year commencing after Easter eve, are, —

French, three times a week.

English, three times a week.

History, three times a week.

General Literature, four times a week first year.

General Literature, twice a week second year.

Natural Science, twice a week first year.

Natural Science, once a week second year.

Art of Teaching, twice a week first year.

Art of Teaching, once a week second year.

Exercises on Teaching, twice a week second year.

Drawing, once a week second year.

Music, once a week second year.

Geography, once a week second year.

Arithmetic, once a week second year.

English Conversations, two afternoons from two to four o'clock.

French Conversations, two afternoons from two to four o'clock.

It is not required that all the pupils shall become teachers. Those who have completed the course and wish a certificate to that effect, must pass a written examination to obtain it. Those who subsequently teach in private families, receive from one hundred to one hundred and eighty tha'ers yearly besides their board. Two hundred thalers is a large salary. The lady teachers who are fortunate enough to obtain positions in girls' schools, receive an average of four hundred thalers and "find themselves." Their work in school is limited to French and English Conversations, and sewing,

knitting, and embroidery lessons,—these important branches being taught in every school.

The boys' schools are sacredly closed against woman's intrusion during working hours. The most noticeable thing in both boys' and girls' buildings, is the lack of apparatus for ventilation. Words cannot tell how dead the air is. The windows are kept closed in winter to save expense in heating. Perhaps it is not so bad in all places, but this city has a parsimonious magistrate. It seems a strange contradiction in a people so fond of out-of-door exercise as the Germans. The school furniture looks primitive. From three to eight pupils sit behind a long desk, and their only blackboards are the small portable kind. Wall blackboards, at which a whole class can work together, are unknown.

M. S. E.

### HELPS IN ENGLISH LITERATURE.

To fix in the memory of students a few important dates in English Literature and History, we have found the following to be interesting and valuable. In Literature, we have selected twelve authors, beginning with Chaucer and ending with Tennyson, and supposing them to represent stories in a monument which we have constructed in this manner. If the figure is drawn on the blackboard, it should be about four feet high, and three wide at the base. This literary monument has the general shape of a cross resting on a heavy foundation stone. Above this rests the first stone, divided in the middle into two divisions. The next stone, divided as before, rests on the first, while the third stone is placed on the second. The shaft, consisting of two stones, rests on the third. A long, horizontal stone, divided into three parts, surmounts the shaft. On the top is placed the cap-stone, divided into two portions. When the figure is drawn in correct proportion, and carefully shaded, we have a fair representation of a solid stone monument, with twelve divisions on its face. We have made use of this figure in this way. On the face of the solid foundation stone are printed the words: Celtic, next to the ground; Anglo-Saxon above this; Danish, Norman-French in the line above, and above all the words, ENGLISH LANGUAGE in large capitals. On the face of the first stone is written, Chaucer, 1400; on the second, Spenser 1600; third, Shakespeare, 1616; fourth. Bacon, 1626; fifth, Milton, 1674; sixth, Dryden, 1700; seventh, Addison, 1720; eighth, Pope, 1744; ninth, Cowper, 1800; tenth, Byron, 1824; eleventh, Wordsworth, 1850; twelfth, Tennyson, 1874. Of course, some will prefer to use different authors to represent their times, but these names may readily be changed to suit one's taste. When the pupil has mastered this chronological outline, the teacher can suggest and the scholar fill in, either orally or written, other authors, important events, etc. Many other things besides mere dates can be used with the figure, as general remarks on the times, in a literary, historical, or philosophical point of view. We have found that the student is easily interested in the preceding work, and that dates are readily and firmly fixed in

the memory. This same method can be used to advantage in American Literature, Ancient or Modern History. We have also used, in the same way, the "Rustic Arch," which can be found in the back part of the Dictionary. The figure is easily drawn, but does not make the substantial appearance of the stone monument. In the arch, it would be a good idea to draw a large keystone, and write across its face, ENGLISH BIBLE, 1611.

The game of authors has long been popular with young people. After a class has read from a dozen or more authors, we have prepared a game from the authors read in the following manner: We procured a sufficient number of blank cards, and made up the "books" from the desired authors, by printing them with pen and ink, and underlining the heading with red ink. The game was then tried, and, if it proved interesting, the names in the different "books" were given to the class, and the class instructed how to prepare a similar set, and also advised to spend some of their leisure time in playing the game. The game serves to instruct the scholars in their study, and to fix in the memory the names of the authors and their principal works. We give a few of the "books" we have used. (1) Charles Lamb, Elia, Rosamond Gray, Old Familiar Faces; (2) Addison, Cato, Spectator, Roger Coverly; (3) Goldsmith, Vicar of Wakefield, Deserted Village, She Stoops to Conquer;

(4) Tennyson, Locksley Hall, Princess, May Queen.

A. F. BLAISDELL.

THE question of "cosmopolitan schools," or the maintenance of public schools where French and German are taught to the primary scholars, has recently been up in San Francisco. The Board of Education of the city found that a large number of such schools had grown up and were burdening the public, while insufficient accommodations were provided for pupils in common English branches. They accordingly swept away the polyglot schools at one stroke; but the city authorities have "requested" the re-establishment of "a number of such schools when it can be done without additional expense." In the course of the debate it was said that seventy-five per cent of the pupils in the primary schools never get any farther, and eighty per cent of those in the grammar schools never go any higher. That is, out of one hundred scholars in the primary schools, twenty-five appear in the grammar, and five in the high school. - Springfield Republican.

PLAIN CLOTHES FOR THE SCHOOL-MARMS. - We plead in the interest of our nation against the fashion and extravagance in dress that is creeping into our public schools. We plead here with the lady teachers, for on these in great measure depends the standard of opinion of the school. Let them remember, each day, that they are going to work, and let them dress in accordance with this fact, —in dresses from which the chalk-dust will shake easily, with no fringes and loops to catch in going through the aisles, no heavy trimmings on the skirts to make more weary still the ofttimes weary day. Let them not wear laces, but plain white linen collars and cuffs. Let them discard all fancy ornaments in their hair, and a new and more healthy tone will begin to pervade our school-rooms. More attention will be paid to work, because less will be demanded for outward adornment; but better still, the girl of poor parents will have no need, because of her clean calico dress, to shrink from comparison with her more wealthy sisters, or try to shine by the addition of faded or soiled finery, or grow insolent to make up for the lack of it. Can we not in any one school unite all the lady teachers in a plain-dress club for purposes of reform ?— Anna C. Brackett.

## INTELLIGENCE.

#### PERSONAL.

ABBIE M. HOLDEN, of the Gaston School, Boston, has tendered her resignation.

SUSIE B. PRATT, of Brooklyn, accepts a position in the Lincoln School, South Boston.

MISS M. STEELE, of the Bridgewater Normal School, is elected to an assistant's position in the Lewiston (Me.) High School.

MARY T. PRICHARD, of the Prescott School, Charlestown, has resigned the position of master's assistant.

ABBIE M. PARKER, of Reading, is appointed assistant in the High School, Middletown, Ct.

FANNIE BLANCHARD has been confirmed as teacher in the Tuckerman Primary School, Boston.

EUNICE B. DYER, of the Bunker Hill School, has been appointed master's assistant in the Prescott School, Charlestown.

MR. MOSES, of the Hopkinton High School, has been elected principal of the Fair Haven High School.

Mr. Jones, of Westfield, has been elected principal of the Hopkinton Grammar School.

HANNAH HILL, of Watertown, has been elected teacher in one of the Grammar Schools, Cambridge.

CAPT. CLARK, of Milton, has been chosen principal of the Natick Grammar School.

MAUD McWilliams has accepted a position as teacher in Natick.

MISS WILLIAMS goes from Granville to Natick.

.Mr. C. CLAY, of the Medway High School, goes to the Hopkinton High School.

#### MASSACHUSETTS.

SALEM.— The teachers in the Primary and Grammar schools are earnestly taking hold of the new course of study and following it with excellent success.

The exhibitions in music and drawing, which will occur in June, promise to be interesting and highly creditable.

A school for the instruction of children of French operatives in the mills is demanded. The Naumkeag School, which receives the same class of pupils, continues to be well attended and successful.

The new Holly Street house is furnished with Haskell's "Classic" desks in rooms 1 and 2, and with Shattuck's furniture in the other rooms. It is ventilated with the Eureka ventilator, which is the nearest approach to perfection in that line, known to us.

MISS ABBY A. GRANT has been transferred from the Browne Primary to the Holly Street Grammar School, to fill the place of Miss Roberts, resigned, and Miss Mary Choate succeeds her in the Browne School. Miss Susan M. Glover has been appointed teacher in the Holly Street Primary.

MISS GEORGIANA R. KEHEN has been transferred from the Pickering Grammar to the Holly Street Grammar; Miss Mary E. Kinsman, from the Bowditch to the Pickering; and Miss S. Fannie Cleave has been appointed assistant in the Bowditch School.

MISS ABBY T. NICHOLS, principal of the Boston Street Primary, is absent in Europe on a six months' tour. The evening schools—two in English branches, and two in drawing—have closed, after a profitable term. The school in free-hand, however, is still kept open for advanced pupils in perspective and shading. Mr. J. Warren Thyng, principal of this school, recently received from his pupils two portfolios, containing twenty large and finely executed photographs of cartoons by Michael Angelo and Correggio.

Springfield. - Rev. M. C. Stebbins has resigned the principalship of the High School, to take effect at the close of the present term. Mr. J. N. Holt, of Middletown, Conn., has been appointed assistant teacher in the High School, vice Mr. C. F. Rice, resigned. Misses M. E. Marsh, of Palmer, J. G. Sevey, of Cheshire, and L. A. Richardson, of the Indian Orchard School, have been appointed assistants in the Elm Street Grammar School, in place of Misses Boggs, Tower, and Canterbury, resigned. Miss R. A. Sheldon, principal of the Indian Orchard School, who has for a time been absent on account of ill health, has returned, and resumed her place at the head of the school. Miss Hattie F. White, a late graduate of the Westfield Normal School, takes the place of Miss Richardson, transferred to the Elm Street School. Miss Emma C. Brownell, of New Bedford, succeeds Miss E. E. Buttrick, of the Hooker School, resigned. Miss S. Louise Cook, principal of the Charles Street Primary School, is absent on account of ill health, and her place is filled by Mrs. M. A. Williams. Miss E. C. Clark has resigned the principalship of the White Street School, and is succeeded by Miss Georgie F. Thayer. Miss C. St. John, of Simsbury, Conn., takes the place of Miss Susie D. Carter, resigned, in the Worthington Street School. Miss Lizzie G. Yeaton, who left the Oak Street Grammar School in the autumn, on account of ill health, will not be able to resume teaching, and her position is filled by Miss G. H. Colton. Miss Louise F. El-

well succeeds Miss Ella Randall in the Bridge Street School, who leaves on account of ill health, and Mrs. Julia Whitney takes the place of Mrs. Lizzie E. Crane, who has resigned her place in the Central Street School. The new High School building will be ready for dedication in September.

NEWTON. - The distinctions long existing in the schools as primary, intermediate, and grammar have been abandoned, and the classes, from the lowest primary to the highest grammar, are numbered in order from one to nine. The schools which have retained the number of the old districts until now have received new names. The schools in District No. I are named as follows: Mason, after the late Hon. David H. Mason; Hyde, after the mayor; Prospect and Oak Hill. No. 2, Hamilton and Williams. No. 3, Pierce, from the principal of the Normal School when located at West Newton; Davis, Franklin, and Adams. No. 4, Bigelow, from the lamented Dr. Bigelow; Underwood, from the late efficient chairman, Gen. A. B. Underwood; Lincoln and Jackson.

MISS S. N. DUNCKLEE, who has served the town successfully for twenty years, has resigned to take an honorable and more lucrative position in the Newton Bank. Annie E. Abraham succeeds her. Martha C. Harriss, of the Bigelow School, has resigned, and Lucy M. Loring succeeds her. Lucy E. Davis has been appointed regular teacher at Auburndale, or more properly at the Williams School, Ward 3. Martha M. Ring has been transferred to the Bigelow School, and Alice Pitts has been appointed at the Jackson School. Esther B. Barry has also been appointed at the Bigelow School.

#### VERMONT.

MONTPELIER Conference Seminary has just received the resignation of Prof. G-G. Bush, Instructor of Languages.

WINDSOR. - Miss Emma A. Preston, first assistant in the High School, resigns

that she may have a season of rest before the work of another year.

Springfield loses from its Board of Education Rev. L. H. Cobb, who has for many years, while both pastor and teacher, been an efficient worker in our cause. Mr. R. O. Forbush has been chosen in his stead.

ST. PAUL'S church proposes to engage Mr. J. E. Seward, at present a tutor of Greek in Harvard College, for a three months' trial in its pulpit. The society has gained III new members recently.

#### GENERAL.

FAIRHAVEN. - NEW PRINCIPAL FOR THE HIGH SCHOOL - The recent Principal of the High School having gone to calm the troubled waters of the Webster High School, the School Committee of this place think themselves fortunate in securing the services of Mr. Vincent Moses, who has an enviable record as a teacher in Medway and Hopkinton. Mr. Moses is a graduate of Amherst, class of 1864, and Hartford Theological Seminary, class of 1871. The High School building has been painted and put in thorough repair; the number of pupils is about 100, and there are two assistants.

BOWDOIN College has called Franklin C. Robinson, of Bangor, to be its professor of applied chemistry.

THE proposals for the erection of the new Smith College building will be all in Saturday, and the contract will be awarded next week. The contract requires that the building be covered and closed in by September 1, and completed next year.

Daniel Ladd, who recently died at Epping, left an estate worth \$100,000, \$3,000 of which goes to found a school at Epping, to be called Watson Academy.

For the first time since its organization, the Deerfield Academy and High School is under the care of a lady principal, Miss J. O. Hall, of Ashfield.

DR. J. M. BREWSTER was re-elected superintendent of schools at Pittsfield by the committee, last week, with a sal ary of \$1,500.

VINCENT Moses, who graduated at Amherst College in 1866 and at the Hartford Theological Seminary in 1871, has become principal of the Fairhaven High School.

WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT, the poet, has offered \$1,000 towards building a new road in Cummington, and the town has been foolish enough to defeat the project by one majority.

Brown University at Providence has just received a gift of \$25,000 from Horatio N. Slater, of Webster, Mass., unencumbered by any conditions, which makes \$53,000 that Mr. Slater has given the university.

WILLABEE HASKELL, teacher of languages in the East Maine conference seminary at Bucksport, has resigned, and will probably accept a professorship in Yale College.

THE Mount Holyoke Seminary grounds at South Hadley are being laid out by a party of four engineers, under the direction of E. W. Bowditch, the Boston landscape gardener. From there the party will go to Easthampton to survey the Williston Seminary grounds, and thence to Northampton to lay out the new Smith College property.

Lynn. — Proposed CATHOLIC School. The Catholic Society of this city soon anticipate the building of a "Sister School," for the intellectual and spiritual training of their children, on the large lot of land, comprising 30,540 feet, situated on North Common Street, near Vine Street. This lot of land was purchased in June, 1872, for \$25,000, of which amount \$15,000 has since been paid. A considerable amount of the remaining

debt it is thought will be raised by the Catholic fair, at present being held in Exchange Hall. As soon as the full amount has been paid, which the society trusts will be in a short time, plans for a school will be immediately drawn, and the erection of a building will be commenced. The plans and erection of a building will be under the supervision of the Rev. Father Strain, through whose personal exertions were erected the Broadway Catholic Church, of Chelsea, the St.

Mary's Church, of Lynn, and the Nahant Catholic Church.

This number of the "Teacher" would have been edited by Miss Anna E. Johnson, had she not been too much out of health to do so.

We have, however, received from her, several of our most interesting articles, viz. the article by "Jay," "Gifts"; "The Study of the Old English Poets," and that over the signature S. M. C.

## BOOKS.

Model Dialogues: A New and Choice Collection of Original Dialogues, Tableaux, etc. Compiled by Wm. M. Clark. Published by J. W. Daughaday & Co., Philadelphia.

This book will be a favorite with the young, and teachers will find in it many familiar dialogues of a "cheerful and humorous" character, well adapted for exhibitions.

Familiar dialogues that have any wit in them, and are not objectionable on the score of coarseness or impurity, are more scarce than one might suppose; and whoever succeeds in selecting such will be pretty certain of finding a sale for his book, while he may be sure that he is doing something to assist teachers in securing a natural and graceful style of reading.

THE LIFE OF THEODORE PARKER. By O. B. Frothingham. Published by James R. Osgood & Co.

This new biography of Mr. Parker, read in the light of the national events of the last dozen years, will be found full of interest to those who were in sympathy with him in al! the great humanitarian reforms of the times, though they may not agree with his religious views. The Unitarians may not like to be reminded of all the old theological controversies, though they can hardly

afford to quarrel with the author for what he has done, when so many of the denomination have not only accepted his views, but gone beyond them.

The biographer, like the subject of his biography, is outspoken and fearless; and no one, we suppose, will now doubt that Theodore Parker had, at least, the merit of being an indomitable and fearless worker for what he believed to be true and right. Such a man is not to be measured by his speculative belief, and we think it a hopeful sign of the times, that he is already recognized as one of the great and good men of his time by all denominations of Christians, and all parties in politics.

The book is largely made up of letters which give us an inside view of the man, and such an insight into character as no public ministrations afford.

FIRST STEPS IN GENERAL HISTORY.
A Suggestive outline, by Arthur Gilman. Published by Hurd and Houghton.

We are not particularly fond of outlines, as a general rule, consisting, as most of them do, of dry facts, and bristling with dates of events, of which the pupil knows so little that he has no interest in them. But Mr. Gilman has given us what it claims to be, a "suggestive outline"; and the style is so pleasing, that one gets even from this enough to stimulate his curiosity to make further investigation.

The maps, "purposely free from details," are great aids in giving the geographic relations of the countries, and the synchronistic tables will be found valuable both to teacher and pupil. Used as suggested by the author, "associated with the study of biography, geography, and literature," and making "Peter the Hermit," "The Children's Crusade," "Oliver Cromwell," " Prince Eugene," etc., "the subjects of essays," it cannot fail to be an attractive book to pupils, and a great aid to the teacher in giving the important personages and interesting events of history their chronological and geographical place.

THE EDUCATION OF AMERICAN GIRLS, Considered in a series of essays. Edited by Anna C. Brackett. Published by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Although these essays take a wider range than Dr. Clarke's "Sex in Education," we presume that but for the appearance of that work we should not have had them; at least, in the present form. Whatever view one may take of Dr. Clarke's book, all must admit, we think, that it has aroused attention on an important subject, and led to investigations and discussions that cannot fail to result in good. Of these essays, we may say in general, that, while they have in no degree modified our opinion of Dr. Clarke's book, they contain much that is very valuable, and that in no way conflicts with his views. In the first essay, on the "Education of American Girls," there is much practical good sense and good advice on physical education, - the proper kind and amount of food, sleep, clothing, and exercise.

The statements with regard to the nature and purpose of education do not seem so clear. If "By nature, man is not man at all," and if "Only so far as by force of spirit he overcomes, rules, and directs the nature in him, can he lay any claim to manhood," it seems to us

that the process which is to advance civilization is not education, development, but conversion.

This theory, however, does not vitiate the author's views of mental and moral education, as throughout the whole of what follows, mental and moral culture is treated purely as a development.

The second essay, "A Mother's Thought," etc., by Mrs. Cheney, is a gem. Every teacher and every mother should read it. Of the others, it may be said that they contain much tending to throw light upon the vexed question of the co-education of the sexes, and are interesting and instructive. We cannot always approve the spirit of some of the essayists when Dr. Clarke is referred to.

School and Home. By Miss D. A. Lothrop, Principal of the Cincinnati Normal School.

These "Reading Papers" for children, in the 2d and 3d Readers, will be a very welcome contribution to the reading exercises in the upper classes in primary schools. The four numbers we have seen contain excellent selections to interest children, and we believe that something fresh and new will keep up an interest in reading which it is difficult to do, when the pieces have been read or heard a hundred times. They are published by Geo. E. Stevens & Co., Cincinnati, who will furnish specimen copies to teachers desiring them. "The Nursery," published by Mr. Shorey, is used in many schools with excellent effect, and we have no doubt that by its use at home and in school better readers are made than by the regular drill, as prescribed by the programme, in the regular text-book.

We remember the answer of a gentleman to the inquiry, "how his daughter became so beautiful a reader." He attributed it to the fact that she had never been to school; but, after teaching her the merest elements, she had been supplied with little story-books, in which she would become so much interested that she would insist on reading them to her mother. Reading thus for the sake of the story, of course she would read well. She acquired the habit of reading from the ideas instead of merely calling words. It then became necessary only to attend to the merely mechanical exercises of articulation and pronunciation.